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ABSTRACT

Findings of a study that examined novice superintendents' understandings of supervision are presented in this paper. Data were collected from administration of a survey to 110 graduate-level students enrolled in an introductory supervision class. Four themes emerged from students' definitions of supervision--domains, relationships, traits, and tasks. The most surprising finding was how adamantly respondents mentioned traits that supervisors have or should have. Four major categories of supervisory traits centered on skills, experience, knowledge. and dispositions. Novice supervisors agreed with the literature that the bifurcation of supervision and administration is artificial and erroneous. However, they identified the following tasks that are not identified in the literature--cheerleading, modeling, liaisoning, and shuffling paper. The question is raised whether the superhuman traits identified by novice superintendents are preexisting or developable. If supervisors are, like nurses, clinical practitioners, then more work needs to be done in the clinical setting of the school. This includes more field work by academic professors and experienced practitioners acting as mentors. One table and three figures are included. (Contains 35 footnotes.) (LMI)

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NOVICE SUPERVISORS' UNDERSTANDINGS OF SUPERVISION

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Supervisors have long been concerned with understanding and fostering teachers' development.[1] But what about supervisors' own development? Unfortunate as it is that scant attention has been paid to this process, a facile comparison could be made between teacher and supervisor development. Is such a comparison warranted?

This study seeks to call attention to supervisors' development; building a case along the way for more research in the area, and suggesting one promising direction such research could take. This, then, is an initial contribution to our understanding of supervisors' development. As such, the most appropriate starting point is a discussion of novice supervisors' understandings.

Analyzing novice supervisors' understandings of supervision ought to inform at least two perspectives: the retrospective and prospective view these novice practitioners hold. That is, being on the verge of a role change, these informants offer a unique opportunity to glimpse teachers' perceptions of supervision and, at the same time, offer up their aspirations for and visions of the role. Their definitions and perspectives are ripe with what Connelly and Clandinin term "history, anticipation and experience."[2]

Connelly and Clandinin make a distinction between novice and

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[1]For example: Carl D. Glickman, Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach (2nd ed.; Boston: Allen and Bacon, 1990).

[2]F. Michael Connelly and D. Jean Clandinin, Teachers as Curriculum Planners: Narratives of Experience (New York: Teachers College Press, 1988).

experienced (teachers') personal practical knowledge.[3] They make no further distinction. Gradations of knowledge and its development do, however, appear in others' work.[4] Benner, for example, employs five stages: novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient, and expert.[5] It is Benner's definition of novice which guides the present study.[6] Benner characterizes the novice stage as one "where no background understanding of the situation exists, so that context-free rules and attributes are required for safe entry and performance in the situation."[7]

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[3]D. Jean Clandinin and F. Michael Connelly, "Rhythms in Teaching: The Narrative Study of Teachers' Personal Practical Knowledge of Classrooms," Teaching and Teacher Education, 2 (1986), 377-87.

[4]For example, Norman A. Sprinthall and Lois Thies-Sprinthall, "The Teacher as an Adult Learner: A Cognitive-Developmental View," Staff Development, Eighty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, IL: The National Society for the Study of Education, 1983), pp. 13-35; and Stuart E. Dreyfus, "Formal Models vs. Human Situational Understanding: Inherent Limitations on the Modeling of Business Expertise," Office: Technology and People, 1 (1982), 133-55.

[5]Patricia Benner, From Novice to Expert: Excellence and Power in Clinical Nursing Practice (Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1984), pp. 20-34. Though Benner's focus is nursing, the similarities between that profession, teaching, and supervision are so readily apparent that others have remarked upon it; for example, Paul A. Pohland and Carolyn J. Wood, "Teachers' Images of Supervision" (unpublished manuscript, University of New Mexico, 1982), pp. 17-21.

[6]Ibid., pp. 20-22.

[7]Ibid., p. 296. It may be that Benner's advanced-beginner stage more appropriately describes the participants in this study, for, as she writes of the novice nurse, "It is unusual for a graduate nurse to be a novice, but it is possible. For example, an expert nurse in gerontology would be a novice in a neonatal intensive care unit. Many first-year nursing students will begin at the novice stage; however, students who have

The Study

Participants

The data for this study were gathered from graduate-level students enrolled in a course entitled "Introduction to Supervision," from Winter quarter 1991 through Winter quarter 1993. This course is required for completion of an Instructional Supervision add-on certificate, a certificate which permits its holder access to entry-level supervision/administration positions in Georgia schools. The course is also a required course in supervision and administration specialist degree programs, a route often chosen by teachers seeking a Georgia leadership certificate. However, owing to students' career paths and state department of education requirements, a large number of students had previously taken another supervision course, "Supervision of Instruction," that deals primarily with observation and conference.[8]

The author taught the introductory course to one hundred and ten supervision students (n=110) during the two years of this study. Of those one hundred and ten, fifty two (47%) were full-

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experience as nurse's assistants will not be novice in basic nursing skills. . . . [N]ovice should not be attributed to the newly graduated nurse because, in most cases, the newly graduated nurse will perform at the advanced-beginner level." Further elaboration of this distinction will follow. For now, however, it will be useful, as an heuristic, to speak of the study participants as novice supervisors, basically, because all are new to the study of supervision, though a few have gained personal practical knowledge.

[8]This fact does not skew the present study because, as will be demonstrated in the following discussion of method, no weighting was used.

time teachers; eleven (10%) were building-level administrators; two (1.8%) were teacher/building-level administrators; another seven (6%) were building-level supervisors (Instructional Lead Teachers, e.g.); five (4.5%) were teacher/building-level supervisors (Chapter I resource specialists, Team Leaders, Department Heads, e g.); five (4.5%) were central office supervisors; another three (2.7%) were other central office personnel; two (1.8%) split responsibilities as teachers and central office administrators; one (1%) was a state-level supervisor/administrator; nine (8%) were building-level media specialists; three (2.7%) were counselors; two (1.8%) were teacher-coaches; and the remaining eight (7%) comprised an "other" category of full-time graduate students, unemployed or privately employed individuals. Fully the largest single group represented in the classes was that of teachers. And, adding together all categories having any teaching responsibility whatsoever, full- and part-time teachers comprised sixty-seven and sixth-tenths percent (67.6%) of the total number of participants. (See Table One)

Insert Table One about here

Methods

Students were asked to respond in writing to the question "What is supervision?" as the first activity in the course; after personal introductions were made and the syllabus examined. If

students found answering that question difficult they were encouraged to consider the question "What do supervisors do?". These written definitions were collected by the instructor. Definitions ranged from one sentence to a page-and-a-half in length.[9]

A content analysis was preformed on the written definitions.[10] The themes and categories that emerged from the content analysis were assembled into a semantic map,[11] a process Oldfather, Manning, White, and Hart refer to as a "mind mappping"[12] (see Figures One, Two, and Three). Semantic maps have the advantage of visually representing themes, categories, and their relationships, though presently such maps are limited to a two-dimensional representation. The students' responses were neither tabulated nor weighted; rather, mention of a theme or category was recorded only once no matter how many mentions it received. All mentions were recorded somewhere on the semantic

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[9]Though some students wrote that they had no idea what supervision was ("On the way here, I realized that I don't exactly know the definition of an instructional supervisor. That is one reason I am taking this course."), all attempted some definition.

[10]Klaus Krippendorff, Content Analysis: An Introduction to its Methodology (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, 1980).

[11]W. J. Pankratius, "Data Collection Techniques Used to Analyze Preservice Teachers' Preconceptions About Teaching" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Orlando, Fla., February, 1992).

[12]Penny Oldfather, Brenda H. Manning, C. Stephen White, and Laurie E. Hart, "Drawing the Circle: Collaborative Mind Mapping as a Process for Developing a Constructivist Teacher Prepartation Program," Teacher Education Quarterly, in press.

map.[13] Hence, in this representational format, a category receiving ten mentions, for example, is indistinguishable from a category that received only one.

Themes and Categories

Insert Figure One about here

Four themes emerged from students' definitions. I have termed these: 1) the domains of supervision, 2) the supervisors' relationships, 3) supervisor traits, and 4) supervisory tasks.

The Domains of Supervision

These novices named four supervisory domains (the administrative, the instructional, the curriculum, and the interpersonal domains) and two sub-domains (staff development and group development). The sub-domains of staff development and group development are related in these novices' definitions to the instructional, curriculum, and interpersonal domains but not to the administrative domain. (See Figure One.)

Supervisors' Relationships

One relationship these novice supervisors mentioned was the supervisory relationship with teachers, both individual teachers and groups of teachers. One student wrote, "Ideally, supervision should inspire all parties involved to meet their potential as a

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[13]I did not separately list equivalent terms for the same concept. For example, where these novices might have used such terms as "overseer" and "watchdog," I used the inclusive, but less colorful term, "monitoring."

group as well as individuals" (emphasis added). Supervision and supervisors were perceived to have a relationship to students, either directly or through teachers; directly, "supervision involves the day to day contact with teachers, parents, and students"; indirectly, "it involves any activities that help teachers provide better instruction for students."

Supervisors were also perceived to have relationships with peers and superordinates. The category "peers" was variously conceptualized, however: Within the old bureaucratic paradigm, peers was taken to mean those on the same horizontal level; within the "emerging practice"[14] of participatory decision making, peer was meant to include teachers as well. One student wrote, "I think of an instructional supervisor as a partner with teachers in the effort to improve instruction" (emphasis added).

Some of these novices perceived supervisors to have relationships which extend beyond the school walls --with the community, with society, and with the world. Supervisors, someone wrote, "need . . . to be aware of the . . . students, teachers, the community, the society, and the world."

Also evident in these novice supervisors' definitions were supervisory relationships with school climate; material things and resources; and programs, missions, and goals.

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[14]Edward F. Pajak, "A View from the Central Office," in Supervision in Transition, ed. by C. D. Glickman (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), p. 127.

Supervisory Tasks

Insert Figure Two about here

Students identified many supervisory tasks (see Figure 2). Chief among these are those I have labelled "motivating" and "providing." The terms these novice supervisors used to describe motivating included "cheerleading," "chiding" (when necessary), "praising," and "challenging." The supervisor as cheerleader "keeps school morale up and supports teachers." Another student wrote, "Throughout the process the supervisor suggests, praises, challenges, and encourages growth and facilitates self-evaluation."

These students felt that one supervisory task was providing knowledge, techniques, hints and ideas, and tools (equipment, materials, and staff development were cited). Ideas, for these students, was differentiated slightly from knowledge. One student wrote that supervision helps make "the jobs of individuals easier by providing them with the essential tools and knowledge to complete the job." A supervisor, wrote another, "provides new ideas, materials, and opportunities." The concept "ideas" connotes specificity: For example, one novice wrote supervisors "give specific examples or ideas to help strengthen weak areas of instruction."

Many of these novice supervisors used the term "guidance" or one of its correlates, such as "directing." Other supervisory

tasks mentioned (though, again, in no particular order) were: observing teaching and conferring with teachers; evaluating, especially teaching; remediating; monitoring[15]; enabling; envisioning; coordinating/integrating; liaising (between hierarchical levels); scheduling; modeling; bringing about change; hiring and firing; assigning work tasks, and accepting responsibility for completion of tasks; placing personnel; holding workshops; and shuffling paper.

Supervisor Traits

Insert Figure Three about here

Perhaps the most surprising result of this exercise was how often and how adamantly these novice supervisors mentioned traits supervisors have or should have (see Figure 3). Under the "traits" theme there are four major categories: experience, skills, knowledge, and dispositions.

These novice supervisors felt supervisors should have classroom experience, experience as a supervisor, and, according to some, experience as a specialist. The generalist-specialist duality is best expressed in the following definition: "A

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[15]One student wrote extensively of this task: "I would define supervision as 'Watchdog.' That is, I see it as a role involving watching over teachers to make sure that they are clear as to what is expected of them in the classroom, that they are fulfilling their duties in a competent fashion, that they are teaching the prescribed curriculum in a way that reaches all students in their classroom, that they maintain a professional attitude, and that they are kept abreast of information they need to know to do their best in the classroom."

supervisor should be able to objectively evaluate any subject. (However, subject-specific supervisors are a great help to classroom teachers.)" Implicit in many of the definitions is the belief that a supervisor should have more knowledge or experience than the teacher with whom s/he interacts: For example, one student wrote: "[Supervision] is ideally conducted by an individual whose knowledge and/or experience is sufficiently and/or significantly beyond that of the individual who is being supervised."

The knowledge students wrote about included supervisors' information (knowledge of trends, for example); knowledge of curriculum and instruction; supervisors' self knowledge; and knowledge of teachers, their goals, their styles, and more. Knowledge of and interest in teachers should extend beyond the strictly professional arena. One student wrote, "Supervisors take an interest in the personal aspect of teachers. Family matters, or other problems that might be the cause of a less than adequate performance must be taken into consideration and addressed on a one-to-one basis."

The skills supervisors should possess include: teaching skills, with students and teachers; classroom observation and teacher evaluation skills; communication skills, especially exceptional listening skills; social and interpersonal skills; problem-solving and decision-making skills; and the skills of both a leader and a follower. Of decision making, one student wrote, "Supervision includes decision-making skills and knowledge

of effective compromise (an ability to perform the art of the deal)." Someone else expressed the belief that "supervision involves, first and foremost, social skills and communication skills." Another wrote that supervisors must have "listening skills and problem-solving skills, and the ability to build and enhance self-concepts and self-confidence."

The dispositions supervisors should possess are many.[16] These novice supervisors felt supervisors should be: nurturing; positive; omnipresent; professional; empowering/enabling; fair; consistent; open or "approachable"; energetic; dedicated; self-aware; caring; firm; and involved.

Discussion

Whether based upon experience with one's own supervisor or upon aspirations and ideals, these graduate students/novice supervisors held definite conceptions of the tasks, traits, relationships, and domains of supervision; even before taking an introductory course in the subject. It would be a relatively simple and equally unproductive reaction to dismiss these understandings as uninformed and naive, especially where they do not coincide with the extant and voluminous literature of the field.

As I see it, there are two viable avenues those of us in academia may take regarding these novices' definitions. We could

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[16]I use the term "dispositions" to capture expressed student opinion that, to quote one novice, "Most people believe that a certificate makes someone capable of supervision, but to me the qualities a supervisor must possess are pre-existing."

take a righteous and defensive position, redoubling our efforts to educate the masses as to the true nature of supervision. Or, we could rethink our vaunted theories to bring them more into line with what practitioners, at whatever level, are experiencing and telling us about their experiences. Personally and professionally, I prefer the second option.

What are they telling us?

Obviously, practitioners see a relation between supervision and administration. Rather than trying to deny that such a relation exists, we ought to (dare I say it) capitalize on the relation and examine it for its implications. Such implications might include insisting upon more supervision classes for administrators and more administration classes for supervisors.[17] The upshot of this is that we should expect more from both our supervisors and administrators. It may be, as Sergiovanni and Pajak point out,[18,19] that the emergent leadership paradigm blends these roles and favors neither.

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[17]So accuse me of heresy! Oliva, I believe, has the right approach, in that, rather than insisting upon a strict and exclusive dichotomy between administration and supervision, he instead proposes that there is a continuum, with one pole representing a pure supervisor and the other a pure administrator. Peter F. Oliva, Supervision for Today's Schools (4th ed.; New York: Longman, 1993), p. 15.

[18]Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Why We Should Seek Substitutes for Leadership," Educational Leadership, 49 (February, 1992), 41-45.

[19]Edward F. Pajak, "A View from the Central Office," in Supervision in Transition, ed. by C. D. Glickman (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), pp. 126-138.

Novice practitioners also see the interpersonal area as a supervisory domain in its own right. To my knowledge, this is not reflected as such in the supervisory literature: Oliva lists staff development, instructional development, and curriculum development as the supervisory domains.[20] Glickman lists those three, termed "tasks," plus group development and action research.[21] Even Pajak, in his comprehensive study of the supervisory proficiences or "dimensions" identified by over fifteen hundred "outstanding supervisors," did not specifically identify the interpersonal area as a domain in its own right.[22] The closest that particular study came to naming the interpersonal was in the identification of the dimensions of "communication" (ranked first) and "motivating and organizing" (ranked fifth). Differences between that study and the present study may be due, in part, to the participants' experience level. If so, this would be an important distinction between beginning and experienced supervisors (as would the identification of the

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[20]Peter F. Oliva, Supervision for Today's Schools (4th ed.; New York: Longman, 1993), pp. 22-24.

[21]Carl D. Glickman, Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach (2nd. ed.; Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1990). It is curious that research did not appear in these novice definitions; not action research, nor research of any type. Glickman does identify interpersonal skills as a prerequisite for supervisors. (The other prerequisites he identifies are a knowledge base and technical skills.) He writes, "Supervisors must know how their own interpersonal behaviors affect individuals as well as groups of teachers and then study ranges of interpersonal behaviors that might be used to promote more positive and change-oriented relationships" (p. 7).

[22]Edward Pajak, "Dimensions of Supervision," Educational Leadership, 48 (September 1990), 78-81.

area of research --identified by Glickman as a task, and ranked twelfth in Pajak's study).

As to the tasks identified by these novice supervisors: Keeping in mind the blend perceived by these novices between what are conventionally identified as administrative and supervisory tasks, there is a startling parallel between those identified here and those put forward by Harris.[23] Harris' list includes: developing curriculum; organizing for instruction; providing staff; providing facilities; providing materials; arranging for in-service education; orienting staff members; relating special pupil services; developing public relations; and evaluating instruction. These tasks, Harris writes, "are distinguished by their high level of instruction-relatedness"; though certain of these tasks "are obviously so broad that they cannot be viewed as exclusively supervisory."[24] Pajak also extends the caveat that the proficiencies identified in his study

> represent duties of instructional leaders at all levels of the organization, they are not the sole responsibility of any single individual or position. Of course, any one position (e.g., superintendent, principal, lead teacher, department chairperson) requires close attention to the performance of certain supervisory functions and less attention to others.[25]

Again, there are strong sentiments, both within the literature and as voiced by novice supervision practitioners, that a

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[23]Ben M. Harris, Supervisory Behavior in Education (3rd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1985), pp. 10-12.

[24]Ibid., p. 12.

[25]Edward Pajak, "Dimensions of Supervision," Educational Leadership, 48 (September, 1990), 78.

bifurcation of supervision and administration is artificial and erroneous.

Tasks identified by the novice practitioners of this study not specifically represented in the literature are those of: cheerleading, modeling, liaising between different hierarchical levels, and shuffling paper. Liaising may not be mentioned in the literature because it is taken for granted by supervision authors. However, it seems important enough to the novices to merit mention. Modeling to these novices means that supervisors must "walk the walk and not just talk the talk." This may be difficult to accept for those socialized to the old bureaucratic norms of subservience to "higher ups." Often, given the other tasks and traits mentioned by the novices, "walking the walk" might require supervisors to be insubordinate or downright subversive! As one novice supervisor wrote, "Supervision is fulfilling a leadership capacity while working with teachers. Being a responsible leader means never forgetting how important the classroom teacher is and doing everything in one's power to uplift and support this teacher." Cheerleading and shuffling paper are more down-to-earth ways of stating obvious supervisory tasks which are, nonetheless, perceived as very important.

To summarize, the task list itself is reminiscent of the hypothetical, and nearly impossible-to-fill, job description drafted by Sullivan: "Help Wanted: Individual needed to handle day-to-day maintenance of school system. Must function as communication center for information and decisions. Job involves

much verbal contact with others. Individual must function in highly fragmented work day."[26] It is important to note, as Sullivan does in her conclusion, that:

> If we wish supervisors to serve the goals of system maintenance first and instruction second, then we should change titles, job descriptions, and training processes to conform to reality. However, if we want them to preform instructional work, then the system rather than the training for the individuals must be changed.[27]

Regarding the traits, especially the dispositions, identified by these novice supervisors, the list seems constitutive of a superman or superwoman. Surely teachers deserve nothing less. It would be interesting, however, to share the list of novice practitioners' ideal supervisors' traits with them and inquire how they feel they measure up.

If these traits are what is required in a supervisor, how does one obtain them? Are these traits, as one study participant wrote, "pre-existing," or can they be developed? If they are indeed pre-existing or, as Glickman writes, prerequisites,[28] should graduate supervision training programs screen applicants for them? Or, should supervision programs accept all comers and, similar to teacher education programs, hope the real-life world

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[26]Cheryl G. Sullivan, "Supervisory Expectations and Work Realities: The Great Gulf," Educational Leadership, 39 (March, 1982), 448.

[27]Ibid., 451.

[28]Carl D. Glickman, Instructional Supervision: A Developmental Approach (2nd ed.; Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1990), p. 7.

of school districts and supervisory practice will weed out the unsuited?

To this question I have no ready answer, though it may be that the group of people who have survived the rigors of teaching long enough to consider moving into supervision have already been screened sufficiently according to the tasks and traits required of supervisors; that is, assuming the traits and tasks of teachers are similar enough to those of supervisors. I think they are, if we ignore those tasks which are the exclusive domain of administration (e.g., budgets, monitoring, hiring and firing). Still, there are those school staffs and individuals who are taking on even these tasks. Again, perhaps we should require more of our supervisors and offer them more by way of academic preparation in order that they may handle what have heretofore been the tasks of administration.

If these traits can be developed, how do we do so? At this point I need to make a correction and a finer distinction than I have.

Much of the literature on development (Hersey and Blanchard, for instance[29]) erroneously assumes that people come to either jobs or tasks as a tabula rasa, a blank slate. Little attention is paid to previous life experiences and the transferability of the skills and knowledge previously gained. If, as I implied above, many of the skills, traits, knowledge, and tasks of

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[29]Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (5th ed.; Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

teaching and supervision are similar, then the study participants I have referred to as novices would, following Benner's model,[30] more accurately be characterized as advanced beginners.[31]

Novices, according to Benner, generally use context-free rules to guide their actions, as they have "no experience of the situations in which they are expected to perform."[32] Advanced beginners, on the other hand, "can demonstrate marginally acceptable performance, . . . have coped with enough real situations to note . . . recurring meaningful situational components."[33] Benner concludes that both "novices and advanced beginners can take in little of the situation: it is too new, too strange, and besides, they have to concentrate on remembering the rules they have been taught."[34] Practitioners at both these stages need support in order to advance. "They need help, for instance, in setting priorities, since they operate on general guidelines and are only beginning to perceive recurrent patterns in their clinical practice."[35]

There are implications here for supervisory training. If we accept that, like nurses, supervisors are clinical practitioners,

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[30]Patricia Benner, From Novice to Expert: Excellence and Power in Clinical Nursing Practice (Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1984).

[31]Ibid., pp. 22-25, 291.

[32]Ibid., p. 20.

[33]Ibid., p. 22.

[34]Ibid., p. 24.

[35]Ibid., p. 25.

then more of our work needs to be done in the clinical setting of the school. Professors of supervision must leave their universities to instruct and guide developing practitioners in the field. Or, failing that, experienced practitioners should be appointed who would guide, mentor, and instruct beginners in the field. If similarities exist between the growth and development of teachers and that of supervisors, then we might advocate further inservice and staff development for supervisors.

If the tasks, knowledge, and skills of teaching and supervision are that parallel, we may wish to identify only the dissimilar areas for our attention. Those dissimilar tasks, knowledge, and skills may even be learned on the job, with little academic intervention required!

Table One

Category:	Number:	Percent:
Teachers	52	47
Building-level Administrators	11	10
Teacher/Administrators	2	1.8
Building-level Supervisors	7	6
Teacher/Building-level Supervisors	5	4.5
Central Office Supervisors	5	4.5
Central Office Personnel	3	2.7
Teacher/Central Office Administrators	2	1.8
State-level Supervisors/Administrators	1	1
Media Specialists	9	8
Counselors	3	2.7
Teacher/Coaches	2	1.8
Other	8	7
Totals:	110	98.8[1]

[1]Total percent does not equal one hundred due to rounding.

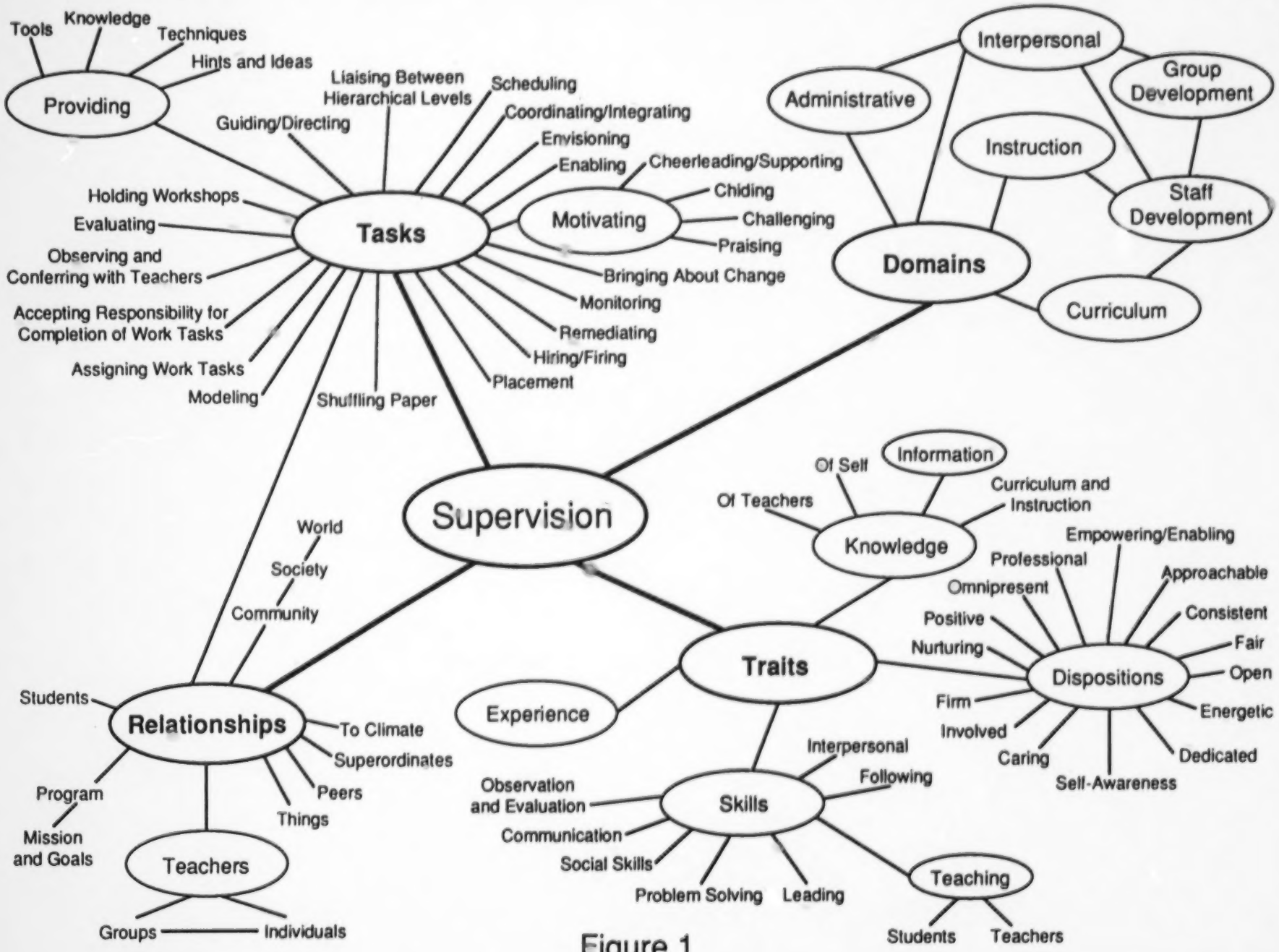
Supervision
Tasks
Providing
Tools
Knowledge
Techniques
Hints and Ideas
Guiding/Directing
Liaising Between Hierarchical Levels
Scheduling
Coordinating/Integrating
Envisioning
Enabling
Motivating
Cheerleading/Supporting
Chiding
Challenging
Praising
Bringing About Change
Monitoring
Remediating
Hiring/Firing
Placement
Shuffling Paper
Modeling
Assigning Work Tasks
Accepting Responsibility for Completion of Work Tasks
Observing and Conferring with Teachers
Evaluating
Holding Workshops
Domains
Interpersonal
Administrative
Group Development
Instruction
Staff Development
Curriculum
Relationships
Students
To Climate
Superordinates
Peers
Things
Program
Mission and Goals
Teachers
Groups
Individuals
World
Society
Community
Traits
Experience
Knowledge
Information
Of Self
Of Teachers
Curriculum and Instruction
Dispositions
Empowering/Enabling
Professional
Approachable
Omnipresent
Consistent
Positive
Fair
Nurturing
Open
Energetic
Firm
Involved
Caring
Dedicated
Self-Awareness
Skills
Interpersonal
Following
Observation and Evaluation
Communication
Social Skills
Problem Solving
Leading
Teaching
Students
Teachers

Figure 1

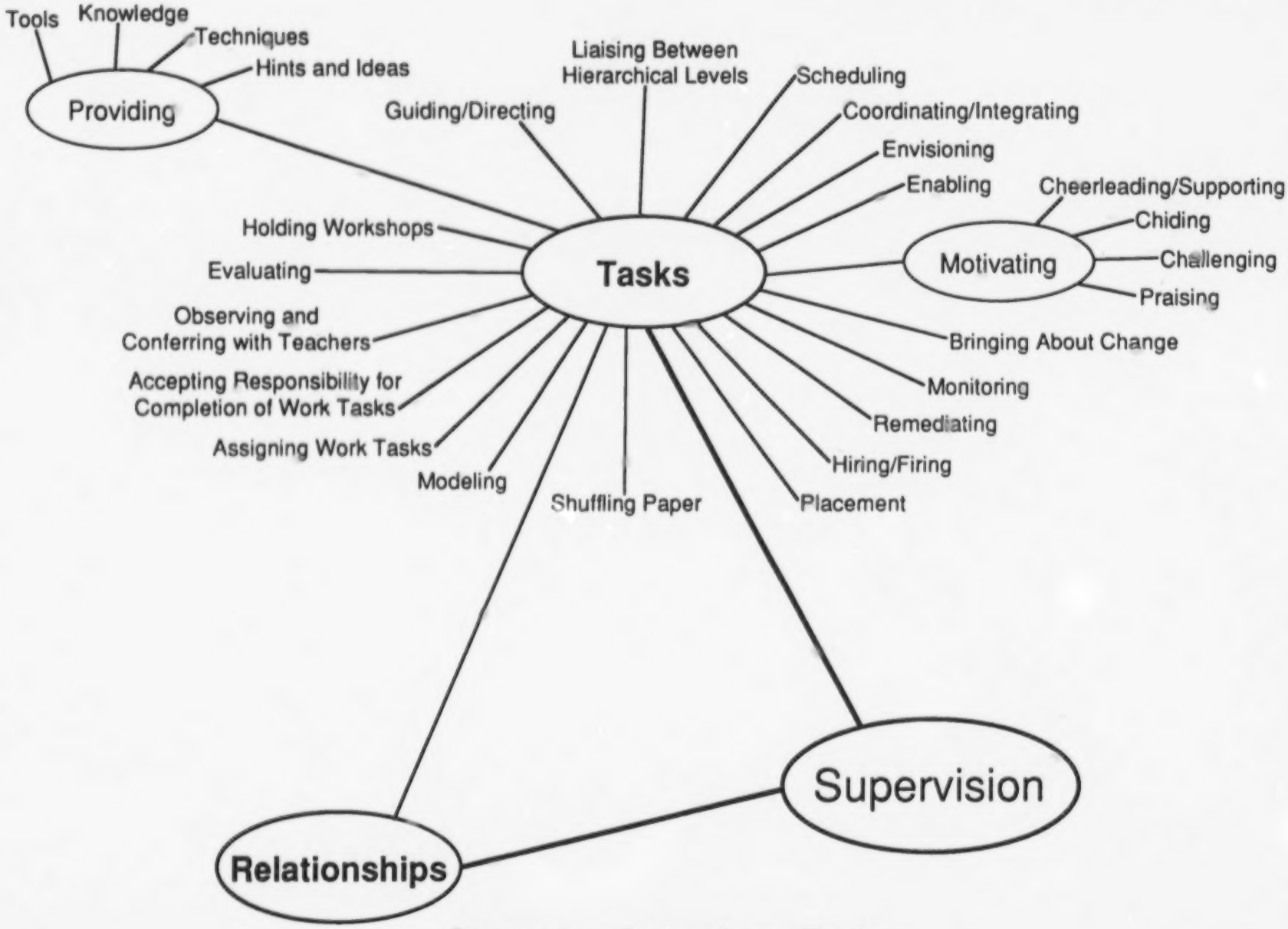

Figure 2. Supervisory Tasks

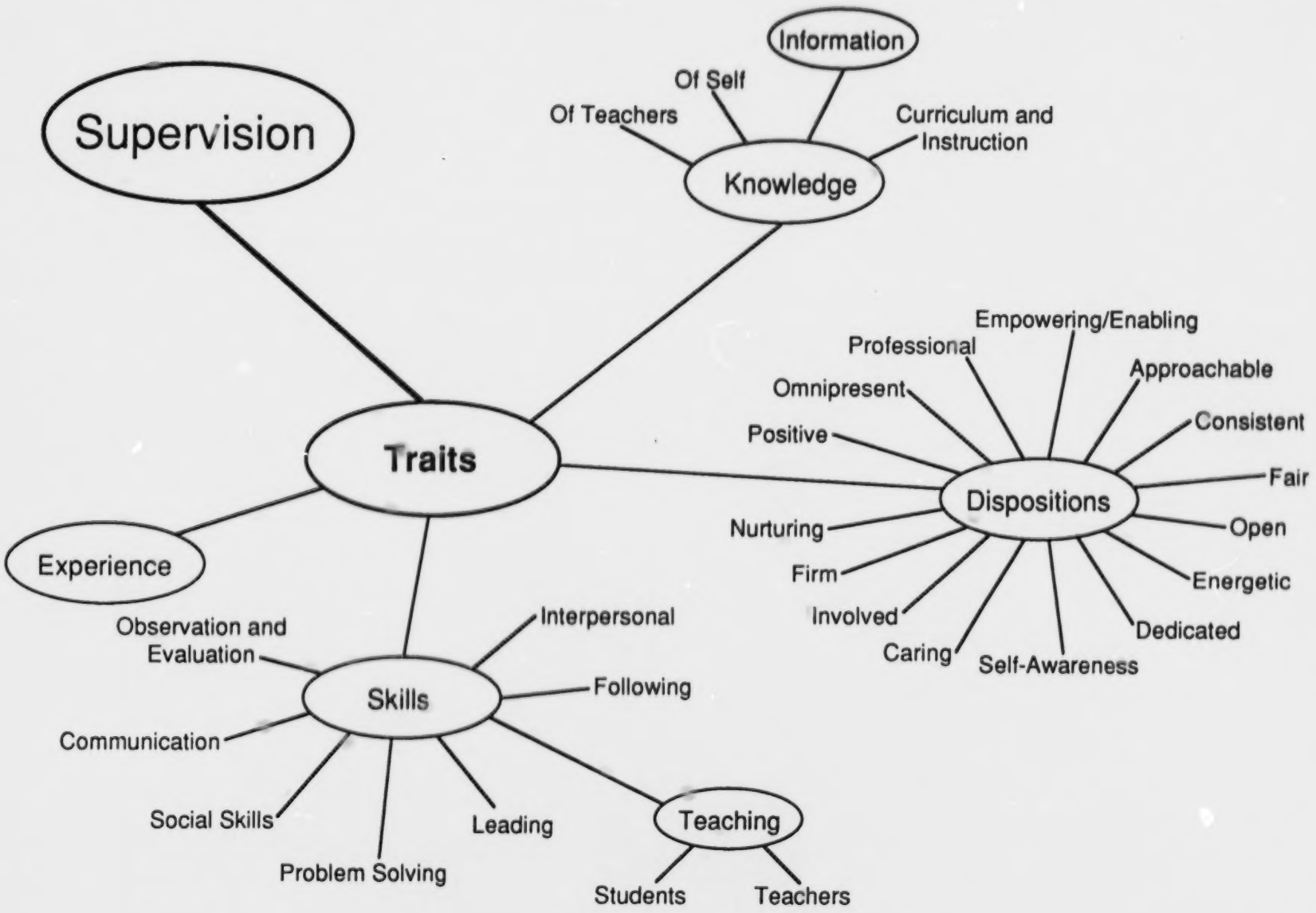

Figure 3. Supervisor Traits